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ABSTRACT

This examination of the communication and interpersonal aspects of the instructional developer/client consulting relationship suggests that communication breakdowns are more than likely due to a misunderstanding of the client's characteristics on the part of the developer. Several models of the consulting relationship are presented, and specific stages of this relationship are considered. The Johari Window model is presented to support the argument that open and honest communication between the client and the consultant increases the probability of the emergence of a creative solution to the problem under consideration. The theories of Gibb and Rogers are used to show how the consultant can establish an open and honest environment which can, in turn, nurture creativity. The writings of Jung and Johnson are considered in relation to the development of an understanding of the decision making process as it relates to the client/consultant relationship. In conclusion, it is suggested that training in the consulting process using the theoretical basis developed above should be part of the graduate training for instructional developers. Six figures are provided. (22 references) (EW)

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C. CLIENT-DEVELOPER RELATIONS

Chapter 21

Psychological Typologies and the Dynamics of Consultant Relationships

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Why does communication break down between instructional developers and clients? These breakdowns are more than likely due to a misunderstanding of the client's characteristics on the part of the developer. This chapter explores the work of Rogers, Johnson, Gibbs and Jung as the basis for a theoretical basis for successful consulting relationships.

"Jerry, I don't know what I'm going to do about her. She really frustrates me."

"Who? Erimalita?"

"Yeah. I can't seem to get anywhere with her. She always seems to be working and working and working but nothing ever really seems to get done. This has gone on for too long now; I think maybe I had better consider terminating the relationship."

"Hmmm. That would be too bad; she seems like a potentially good client."

"I agree, but I just don't know what else to do..."

"Maybe it would be useful to talk some more about her; you might get a suggestion."

.....

"So, that's the way the relationship has gone. I'm convinced that she is a potentially good client, but I can't seem to get anything out of her."

"Well, from what you've described you seem to have a good rapport with her. I think you have managed to create an open relationship, but there may be another variable you overlooked."

"What's that?"

"Well, how does she react to you in your conversations--when you ask a question, does she answer it directly or will she sometimes seem to

wander all over the place?"

"All over the place, there's no doubt. I've even seen her in the classroom with some of the questions that are raised by students. Somebody asks her a question and it seems that she talks about everything except the question that was raised."

"A classic spontaneous."

"A classic what?"

"From what you have told me you have described two things. The first is that you and Erimalita have a good relationship; it seems to be open and accepting, but it isn't enough for you to have simply maintained that part of the process. You need to think some more about how she makes decisions. That is the part that is probably causing your frustrations. From what you have described she gathers and processes information in a manner that is different from what most of your clients probably use. Her thinking is more likely stream-of-conscious and less likely systematic in nature. If you expect her to react systematically to your suggestions without guiding her in some way you're bound to end up frustrated."

"I see; what you seem to be suggesting is that there are two important conditions in the consulting process, with Erimalita or anyone else; the first is to establish an open and supportive relationship, and the second is to understand the deci-

sion-making styles of the client, which you have described in terms of a continuum from spontaneous to systematic behavior."

"Yes, I think that's a fair summary."

This vignette is a composite of several conversations we have had among ourselves and with others. The difficulties one of us had with a client instigated the beginnings of our efforts to understand more clearly the consulting process and the conditions that foster a productive relationship.

As designers, we too often forget to develop our interpersonal relationship with the client and to use this relationship as yet another means for facilitating creative solutions to problems brought to us. We forget in the midst of all of our objectives, task analyses, and experimental designs that the person sitting in the chair opposite us is a human being too--and that the development of the relationship between us may be just as important in facilitating a solution to the problem as are the objectives, task analyses, etc. As Leonard (1979) has pointed out, "Most (consulting) contracts are enhanced or diminished depending on the consultant's interpersonal communication skills. These are the same skills needed by individual therapists: warmth, empathy, positive regard, expressions of feelings, ability to accurately send and receive messages, establish trust, give and receive feedback, handle conflict, and accurately gauge client behavior."

In this chapter, we suggest that there are two conditions necessary for an effective consulting relationship: an open and honest interpersonal relationship between the client and the consultant, and an understanding of the client's decision-making styles. In short, skills for facilitating interpersonal relationships and responding to decision-making styles are ones that a consultant should be able to use along with traditional instructional development skills.

In what follows, we will first discuss models of consulting and the successive stages followed in establishing the consulting relationship. Next we will outline Rogers' presentation of the requisite conditions for interpersonal relationships leading to creative problem solutions; and we will consider Gibb's criteria for nurturing interpersonal development. Finally, drawing from Jungian theory, models of client-decision-making styles are considered as yet another aspect of the interpersonal dimension.

THE CONSULTING PROCESS

Others have explored the definitions and assumptions involved in the consulting process. We will not describe these in depth; however, we will attempt to summarize some of the more relevant points of these discussions.

Definition. The consulting process is essentially "some type of planned intervention into an on-going organizational system" (Davies, 1975). Steele offers the following definition, which

focuses upon this basic understanding:

any form of providing help on the content, process or structure of a task or series of tasks where the consultant is not actually responsible for doing the task itself but is helping those who are. (Steele, 1975)

Further, Steele indicates that the client has the option to reject the help or advice of the consultant at any time.

Based on these definitions, Tilles (1961), Schein (1969, 1978), and others have suggested that there are three general models of consultation: 1) the Project or Purchase model, 2) the Physician/Patient or Prescription model, and 3) the Process model. From Schein (1978), these models can be characterized by the following assumptions. Note the emphasis placed upon the management of the interpersonal relationship or the client's decision-making style.

Product or Purchase Model. In this model the client has decided what is needed to solve a particular problem. It is assumed that the client has chosen the correct consultant or expert to solve the problem, that the client has communicated the problem clearly to the consultant and that the client is prepared to accept the consequences of the consultant's intervention. The client identified the problem and expects the consultant to deliver a solution--the product that is purchased.

Physician/Patient or Prescription Model. In this approach the client experiences some difficulty with the system of interest. Based upon the medical model, the diagnosis and solving of the problem are best done by an expert. It is assumed that the client has correctly interpreted the symptoms of the "sickness," that the client can trust and will accept the diagnostic information, that the "prescription" for the problem will be implemented, and the client will be able to remain healthy after the consultant leaves. In this model the client is dependent upon the consultant for the diagnosis, while the consultant is dependent upon the client for the accurate communication of the symptoms of the problem.

Process Model. Those following this approach hold that for many problems the only way to find a worthwhile solution is for the client and the consultant to work together to generate the solution. Thus for certain situations, it is assumed that the nature of the problem is such that the client will need help in making the problem diagnosis, that the client has problem-solving skills and wants to employ them, that the client is ultimately the one who knows what form of solution is workable. The process model assumes that if the client is involved in the problem-solving process then there will

be an increase in her/his problem-solving skills. In this model the client feels responsible for the solution to the problem, and the focus here is upon the processes involving the following problem-solving sequence; the product now becomes secondary to the process.

In each of the above models, task completion was of primary concern, while relationship management or ways of responding to the client's decision-making style are not emphasized. In the Product Model we find that the consultant is barely required to interact with the client. The client may call the consultant and ask that a training package be prepared by a specific date. The only interaction here may be the initial phone call requesting the service or product. In the Prescription Model the client interacts more with the consultant. In this model the human interaction will exist at a level beyond that in the Product Model, but it can be a very limited interaction, with tolerance for a wide range of behaviors on the part of either party, reminding one of a physician exhibiting a "bedside manner." If the problem is severe enough, or if the patient has a great deal of confidence in the physician, s/he often will tolerate a variety of rude behaviors in order that the body may be cured. If the malady is less critical, one might then select a medical consultation in which the "bedside manner" conforms more closely to the patient's own style or preference. In either case, human interaction plays a role in this model which is peripheral to the problem at hand. In the Process Model, in which interaction is maximal, again no attention is given to either the management of the interpersonal dimension or to the client's decision-making style. But both could have maximal impact with this model.

STAGES OF THE CLIENT-CONSULTANT RELATIONSHIP

Regardless of the consulting model used, there are specific stages in the development of the client-consultant relationship. We will briefly survey these stages with an eye toward the Process model in which these stages are often more apparent and prolonged. Again, however, note the relative absence of emphasis on the interpersonal process.

Most of the work describing the stages of the consulting process focuses on the steps that the consultant will follow during the course of the interaction. Rhodes (1974) observed five sequential stages: the entry phase, in which the consultant begins interaction with the client system; the diagnosis stage, in which the consultant makes an assessment of the characteristics of the client system; a contract phase, in which goals and expectations are formalized; the intervention and consultation maintenance process itself; and finally, the termination of the relationship.

Davies (1975) offers three main stages within which he sees activities occurring. There is an

Entering phase, in which the initial contact with the client system is made and the negotiation of a formal relationship is conducted. Next there is the Maintenance phase, in which the problems are analyzed, decisions are made, and a commitment to action is made on the basis of the analysis and decision-making activities. Finally, there are termination activities, during which an evaluation of the intervention is made and the consultant's involvement in the client system is reduced or terminated.

For Kurpius (1978) nine stages characterize the consulting relationship. There is a pre-entry stage in which the consultant is faced with examining his or her own assumptions about the nature of the consulting process; this is followed by an entry phase, in which the first contact is made with the client. Next there is an information-gathering stage, in which the client seeks data for use in the next stage, in which the problem is formulated. From this formulation a problem solution is derived, in terms of specific outcome-statements. Finally, there is the implementation and evaluation of the solution, followed by the termination of the relationship.

None of these authors would argue that each of these stages must necessarily follow in a direct line or sequence. Indeed, most feel that there will always be some kind of interaction or overlap among the stages. What we feel is important here is that all of the stages described above refer more to the task orientation of the relationship rather than to the interpersonal characteristics of the relationship. While none of these authors would deny the importance of the interpersonal aspects of the relationship, their stages do not directly reflect the interpersonal skills that must be brought to bear in the relationship.

At this point we have discussed the relative lack of attention which has been given to the interpersonal relationship between the client and the consultant in the consulting relationship. We would now like to set forth the theoretical arguments that support our first thesis; i.e., that open and honest communication between the client and the consultant increases the probability of the emergence of a creative solution to the problem under consideration. The theories of both Rogers and Gibb will be used to show how the consultant can establish an open and honest environment which can, in turn, nurture creativity.

OPEN AND HONEST COMMUNICATION

The problem of openness and honesty with respect to what one is willing to share has been represented by the Johari Window (Luft, 1961). In this model we are represented by a wall containing a window of variable size. Our mind is on one side of the wall, and the person we are communicating with is located on the other side. Others can only receive information from or about us if this information is displayed, either intentionally or unintentionally, in the window. This display function can

be represented, then, by describing the size and opacity of the window. This window is said to vary in size for different kinds of information, in different settings, and when communicating to different individuals or groups. And it is said to take on four different states, or conditions: Open, Concealed, Blind, and Unknown.

The 'Open' pane of the window displays the information that we are willing to share with others. This window may be larger or smaller, depending upon who we are communicating with; it provides the basis for most of our communications with others. The 'Concealed' pane holds those pieces of information that you as a communicator do not wish to share with another. Some things that remain concealed in one interaction may not be so concealed in another. In the 'Blind' pane we find information that other people perceive about an individual but which that individual is unaware of. For example, you may perceive yourself as fair in dealings with subordinates, while others may perceive you as vindictive. With the 'Unknown' pane we come to that information which is unperceived both by the individual and by others. This pane includes all the things one is potentially, but which have not been discovered by oneself or by others. Figure 21-1 represents these relationships.

Using the Johari Window, Schein (1969) has characterized four types of communication patterns between two persons (See Figure 21-2).

Arrow A represents the normal mode of communication between two people, i.e., both parties sharing information that is known to themselves and which they are willing to share. Arrow B represents a situation in which information is gained from the other party which they did not intend to transmit. Arrow C represents a situation in which a party has begun the process of self-disclosure, i.e., sharing information that is not normally shared. Arrow D represents a situation in which neither party is aware of the messages being sent or received, a situation which most likely results in a sense of tension between the parties, or conversely, of attraction. As consultants we feel that we must be aware of the types of messages which exist in the communication process. These messages can come to us through verbal or non-verbal means; and if ignored they can have a deleterious effect upon the consulting relationship.

What we contend is that these messages between client and consultant should be as open as possible, and that when this situation is reached there exists the highest probability that the interpersonal relationship will be fruitful and that the

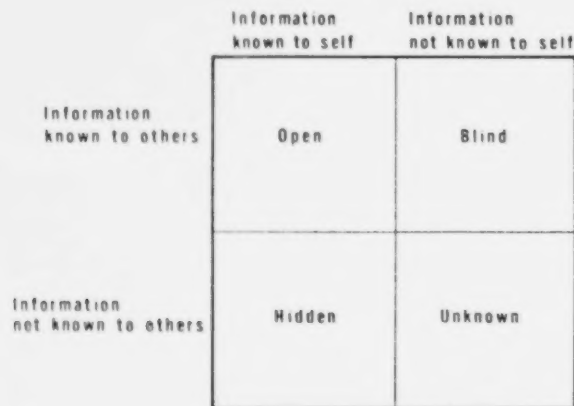


Figure 21-1. The Johari Window. (Adapted from *Understanding Interpersonal Communication*, Richard Weaver, p.64).

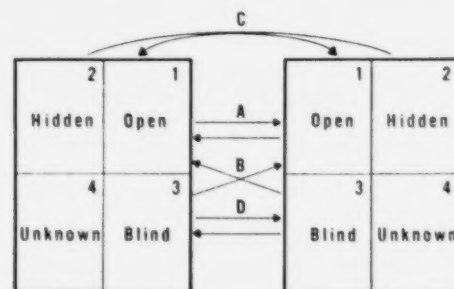


Figure 21-2. Types messages in a two-person communication situation. (Adapted from *Process Consultation: Its Role in Organizational development*, Edgar Schein, p.24).

solutions to the instructional problems will be as creative as possible. The goal, then, for the interpersonal relationship should be the development, by the client and consultant, of the Johari window with the widest possible open pane. See Figure 21-3.

We believe that this goal represents a necessary condition for the achievement of that consultation situation which is most conducive to the creative solution of problems. In the next two sections we will attempt to outline the theoretical basis for this argument.

CONDITIONS NECESSARY FOR THE CONSULTING RELATIONSHIP

The farmer cannot make the germ develop and sprout from the seed; he can only supply the nurturing conditions which will permit the seed to develop its own potentialities. (Rogers, 1961)

The product of the consulting relationship (and here we mean tangential products as well as the services provided) should be the most creative solution to the problem at hand. Creative, in this sense, can be defined as:

the emergence in action of a novel relational product, growing out of the uniqueness of the individual on the one hand, and the materials, events, people, or [one's] life on the other hand. (Rogers, 1961)

Our argument that a creative solution can be a product of an open and honest relationship is based upon the assumption that humans tend to actualize themselves. As Rogers put it, "The mainspring of creativity appears to be the same tendency we discover so deeply as the curative force in psychotherapy--man's tendency to actualize himself, to become his potentialities." Further, it is one's "urge to expand, extend, develop, mature--the tendency to express and activate all the capacities of

the organism or the self" (Rogers, 1961). It is from Rogers' experience that we wish to establish the conditions which are necessary for the consulting relationship to function properly.

The Conditions for Creativity

According to Rogers (1961) the conditions for creativity can be classified as those that provide psychological safety and those that provide psychological freedom.

Psychological Safety. Psychological safety is the establishment of an interpersonal environment within which the client and the consultant have freed themselves of the defenses that one often uses to protect one's ego. Weaver (1978) has concluded that "humans spend an incredible amount of energy trying to avoid becoming known by other human beings." The same energy that goes into protecting oneself can also be channeled into the creative process when one no longer feels it is necessary to keep defenses up.

In order to establish the condition of psychological safety one needs to accept individuals as possessing a worth in and of themselves:

Whenever a teacher, parent, therapist, or other person with a facilitating function feels basically that this individual is of worth in his own right and in his own unfolding, he is fostering creativity. This attitude can probably be genuine only when the teacher, parent, etc., senses the potentialities of the individual and thus is able to have an unconditional faith in him, no matter what his present state. (Rogers, 1961)

Rogers notes that this attitude of unconditional worth fosters a belief which causes the individual to sense a climate of safety. The individual learns that it is possible to be whatever s/he is, without fear, knowing that s/he will be accepted. There will be no need for rigidity; thus self-actualization can begin.

It is also necessary to establish a climate in which external evaluation of the client is absent. Evaluation is always a threat and carries with it a need for defensiveness. Indeed, Rogers observed, "I would like to propose...that the major barrier to mutual interpersonal communication is our very natural tendency to judge, to evaluate, to approve or disapprove, the statements of the other person..." This is not to say that to cease evaluating another is to cease having reactions. It may, as a matter of fact, free one to react. "I don't like your idea" (or painting, or invention, or writing), is not an evaluation, but a reaction. It is subtly but sharply different from a judgment which says, "What you are doing is bad (or good)," assigning this quality to you from some external source. The first statement permits the individual to maintain his own locus of evaluation. It holds the possibility that I am unable to appreciate something which is

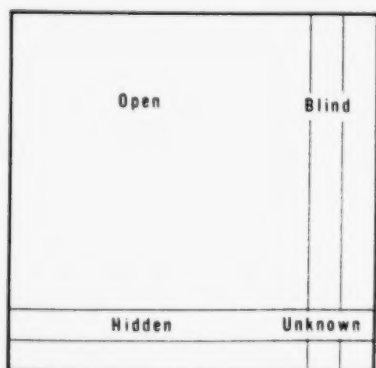


Figure 21-3. A nearly maximal Johari window.

actually very good. The second statement, whether it praises or condemns, tends to put the person at the mercy of the outside force. He is being told that he cannot simply ask himself whether this product is a valid expression of himself; he must be concerned with what others think. He is being led away from creativity.

It is also necessary to be able to understand empathically. Empathic understanding enables one to see what the other is doing and/or feeling, to view the world as the other views it. In this climate the whole self can be freed to participate in the communication process. Further, the "empathic approach leads to improved communication, to greater acceptance of others and by others, and to attitudes which are more positive and more problem-solving in nature" (Rogers, 1961).

Psychological Freedom. Along with psychological safety we must also foster Psychological Freedom; an opportunity for the individual to have complete freedom of symbolic expression. This freedom gives individuals the opportunity to think, feel, or "to be" whatever is within themselves. The individual will be as free to be afraid of failure or of making mistakes as s/he is free to have success.

It is important here that we clarify an impression that may be forming in the reader's mind (empathic thinking?)--**we are not advocating therapy as the basis for the client-consultant relationship.** We accept Schein's (1978) position that

Interpersonal events should only be dealt with if and when the client indicates a genuine readiness to deal with them and if there is clear evidence that the interpersonal events are getting in the way of effective problem solving. It is not helpful to a client to be pushed into interpersonal and emotional issues before there is an emotional readiness to deal with them.

However, we do believe that establishing an environment of psychological freedom and safety will often bring with it interpersonal issues that stand in the way of the creative process. We should be prepared to recognize these issues when they appear and to cope with them appropriately. For example, having established an open environment for a client, we may find that the client's lack of progress is due to a personal dissatisfaction with her or his career; if the consultant has fostered the conditions of psychological safety and freedom, then these issues will be brought to the fore. It may be that the lack of progress in the relationship is a symptom of a motivational problem the client has in her or his own life. When these issues come out, the consultant may realize that satisfactory progress in the relationship will come only when the client has begun to cope with the dysfunctional themes in her or his life. At this stage the client and consultant together might consider the addi-

tion of a trained counselor to the consulting process.

We recognize the complications inherent in establishing the open relationship, but we feel that the potential benefits far outweigh the possible disadvantages of, for example, a project being redirected because of another's personal concerns. We feel that it is our responsibility as consultants to do as much as possible to insure that an open environment does exist, and to be prepared to work with the consequences of this openness. However, the problem of establishing this openness remains.

While there are a variety of ways to think about implementation of these conditions, we have found the work of Jack Gibb, on the process of defensive communication, to represent a pleasant balance between theoretical rigor and practical application.

Defensive Communication. Gibb (1961) has characterized defensive behavior as:

That behavior which occurs when an individual perceives threat or anticipates threat...The person who behaves defensively...devotes an appreciable portion of (his/her) energy to defending (him/herself)... Defensive arousal prevents the listener from concentrating upon the message. Not only do defensive communicators send off multiple value, motive, and affect cues, but also defensive recipients distort what they receive. As a person becomes more and more defensive, (he/she becomes less and less able to perceive accurately the motives, the values, and the emotions of the sender...The converse, receivers become better able to concentrate upon the structure, the content, and the cognitive meanings of the message. (p. 141-142)

From this, we believe that Gibb's work can provide a framework for establishing the conditions necessary for the success of the consulting process.

Following an eight-year study in which he analyzed recordings of discussions in a variety of settings, Gibb concluded that there were six categories of behavior that worked to provide either a supportive or a defensive climate. (See Figure 21-4). These are described in the following material.

Evaluation Versus Description. Any behavior that is perceived as judgmental of the listener is classified as evaluative behavior. If the receiver senses that the speaker is being evaluative, then the receiver will become wary of the speaker's intent. As Gibb notes, "Because our attitudes toward other persons are frequently, and often necessarily, evaluative, expressions which the defensive person will regard as nonjudgmental are hard to frame. Even the simplest question usually conveys the answer that the sender wishes, or implies the response that would fit into (the sen-

Defensive Climates	Supportive Climates
1. Evaluation	1. Description
2. Control	2. Problem orientation
3. Strategy	3. Spontaneity
4. Neutrality	4. Empathy
5. Superiority	5. Equality
6. Certainty	6. Provisionalism

Figure 21-4. Defensive and supportive climates. (Reprinted from *Defensive Communication*, *The Journal of Communication*, 11(3), 1961.)

der's) value system." Descriptive speech will not arouse defensive behavior. Speech that the receiver perceives as having a natural effect or that indicates an honest request for information will help to establish a supportive climate.

Control Versus Problem Orientation.

Messages which are sent in order to manipulate the receiver will also produce defensive behavior. This norm in our lives is one of controlling messages, e.g., advertisement and political stands. "Implicit in all attempts to alter another person is the assumption by the change agent that the person to be altered is inadequate; that the speaker secretly views the listener as ignorant, unable to make (their) own decision, uninformed, immature, unwise or possessed of wrong or inadequate attitudes..." A problem orientation is that environment which is established when the sender indicates a desire to cooperate with the receiver in seeking a solution to the problem at hand. It implies no predetermined solution, attitude or method to be imposed upon the receiver.

Strategy Versus Spontaneity. If the sender is perceived as having an end-product in mind which the receiver is being deceived into accepting, a negative climate will also emerge. "A large part of the adverse reaction to much of the so-called human relations training is a feeling against what are perceived as gimmicks to fool or to 'involve' people, to make a person think (they) are making (their) own decision, or to make the listener feel that the sender is genuinely interested in (the receiver) as a person." Spontaneity, on the other hand, will support the interpersonal climate. If the sender is perceived as being forthright and honest, of relating spontaneously to a situation, then there will be a minimal defensive reaction.

Neutrality Versus Empathy. By neutrality we mean speech with affect that is communicating "little warmth or caring." The idea of neutrality here is that the communicator has no regard for the value of the listener. Another instance is an attitude that conveys empathy for the feelings and respect for the worth of the listener.

Abortive efforts to deny the legitimacy of the receiver's emotions by assuring the receiver that (they)

need not feel bad, that (they) should not feel rejected, or that (they are) overly anxious, though often intended to be supporting, may impress the listener as lack of acceptance.

Equality is thus attained when the sender is perceived as willing to enter into participative planning with "mutual trust and respect."

Certainty Versus Provisionalism. Those who always appear to "know the answers, to require no additional data, and to regard themselves as teachers rather than co-workers tend to put others on guard." The person who operates from the position of certainty will be perceived as "wanting to win an argument rather than solve a problem." The defensive climate is thus reduced when one communicates the sense of provisionalism; a feeling that no issues have been solved in advance, that exploration is necessary for the ultimate solution.

It is with this perspective that we end our discussion of the conditions necessary for the consulting process to function successfully. We have argued that one needs to establish conditions of psychological safety and freedom in order to nurture the creative process. The creation of an "open window" in the sender and the receiver of a message will lead to the most creative solution to a problem. To foster this openness we have adopted the work of Gibb in his analysis of communication patterns and offer these as the characteristics of the conditions of psychological freedom and safety. This thus establishes the necessary interpersonal dimensions of the consulting process. Figure 21-5 represents this pattern of communication. In the next section we will focus upon what we perceive to be the additional conditions of the consulting process. There we will focus upon patterns of thought that are more directly related to the cognitive patterns of decision-making.

ADDITIONAL CONDITIONS IN THE CONSULTING PROCESS

In the previous sections we were concerned with establishing the conditions that will allow those involved in the consulting process to operate

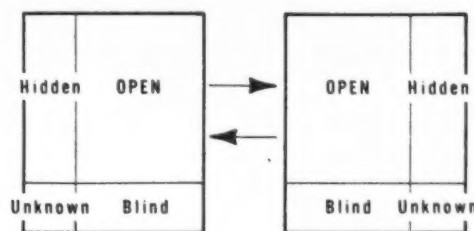


Figure 21-5. Optimal communication pattern between sender and receiver.

as creatively and as freely as possible. In this section we will look more at those conditions which help the consultant to understand how the client thinks in the process of the problem-solving exercises. Whereas the necessary conditions of the consulting process are focused more upon the interpersonal dimension of the relationship, the conditions to be discussed here focus more upon cognitive areas of interaction.

Filters

In Figure 21-5 we diagrammed the optimal Johari window for the creative process. In this figure we represented communication as arrows between the open panes of the windows. The further conditions of the consulting relationship now revolve around understanding more clearly the filters that can intercede between the client and the consultant, through which these arrows must pass. These can be as broad as major personality constructs or as limited in scope as a single cognitive style. Our intention here is to concentrate upon one aspect of this filtering process—that of decision-making styles. We have selected this perspective as it seems to be the most practical one for use in the consulting process. The broad notions of id, ego, collective unconscious, etc., are too general to be of practical assistance to the consultant. The more specific dimensions of cognitive style, e.g., scanning-focussing, field dependence-independence, etc., are often too limited in their practical application to be of help in the consulting process. From both pragmatic and theoretical viewpoints, we have found that the filtering processes used in making decisions and responding to events is an appropriate focus for the consultant. It would appear that decision-making characteristics are relatively stable personality traits that are readily identified in the interpersonal situation.

MODELS OF DECISION-MAKING

Decision-making style refers to the manner in which an individual perceives and responds to a set of information that must be evaluated in some manner. What is important is that these styles follow from a tradition of psychological research

and theory and represent more than armchair theorizing. Indeed, much of the theory of decision-making can be explained in terms of Jung's work on the structure of the personality.

Jung (1981) claims that there are four psychological functions of personality: thinking, feeling, sensing, and intuiting. Each individual personality has developed each of the four functions to a greater or lesser extent. In other words, one of the functions dominates the other three. Although the fully-developed personality is impossible, according to Jung, the personality strives toward full development as a goal.

The thinking function is strictly cognitive in that it deals only with ideas and thoughts. The major goal of the thinking function is to comprehend the world and oneself. Thus, someone who must reach a decision concerning which instructional strategy to use in the classroom would focus upon the theoretical underpinnings of the various options, and would probably think about the research studies which have been conducted concerning each. The feeling function, on the other hand, is the evaluation function, in that the value of things is assessed and the emotional reaction to them is formulated. Thus the same client, when deciding upon an instructional strategy, would respond to each possible strategy on the basis of how s/he felt about it. If self-paced instruction left the client feeling overwhelmed and out of control, then these feelings would prevail in reaching a decision not to use this approach, regardless of what the research said about results.

The sensing function is the "reality" function, and yields concrete and observable facts about the world or object of perception. The sensing personality thrives on collecting information and facts. After gathering information concerning the various instructional strategies, this person would be able to recite a great deal of information about each; such information would, in turn be used to guide the decision-making process.

Finally, the intuitive perceiver relies upon subliminal communication and unconscious processes as channels for gathering information. There is a tendency to go beyond facts, feelings, and ideas in order to come to know what is real. Thus, in making the same decision about which instructional strategy to select, the intuitive personality

would reach a decision based upon reactions that perhaps could not be carefully specified. They suddenly just "know" what approach they want to use.

Other, less global, approaches have been suggested which concentrate more upon the decision-making styles found among individuals, but without attempting to provide the theoretical underpinnings which Jung has posited. However, these approaches draw strongly upon the Jungian perspective.

Harren (1979) has proposed a model of career decision-making that attempts to explicate the stages one goes through in selecting a career. He proposes a series of invariant stages through which most all students will progress in making their career decisions; he also postulates that the manner in which one responds to a decision-making task can be classified. Drawing from the work of Dinklage (1967), who proposed eight styles of decision-making in the career development process (planning, intuitive, compliant, fatalistic, impulsive, delaying, agonizing, and paralytic), Harren proposed three groups, or clusters of categories. He proposed that decision-making styles were generally rational, intuitive, or dependent. These styles are briefly described as follows:

Rational. This style is characterized by the ability to recognize the consequences of earlier decisions for later decisions. It requires an extended time perspective in which several sequential decisions are viewed as a means-end chain. The individual anticipates the need to make decisions in the future and prepares for them by seeking information about self and the anticipated situation. The individual's decisions are carried through deliberately and logically. The rational dimension is most closely aligned to Jung's thinking dimension.

Intuitive. As in the rational style, the intuitive decision-maker accepts responsibility for decision-making. The intuitive style, however, involves little anticipation of the future, information-seeking behavior or logical weighing of factors. Rather, it is characterized by the use of fantasy, attention to present feelings and an emotional self-awareness as the basis for decision-making. Commitment to a course of action is reached relatively quickly, and its basic "rightness" is felt internally. Often the individual cannot state explicitly how he or she decided. This style is like Jung's feeling dimension.

Dependent. Unlike rational and intuitive styles, the dependent style is characterized by a denial of personal responsibility for decision-making and a projection of that responsibility outside of self. The individual is heavily influenced by the expectations and desires authorities and peers have of him or her. One tends to be passive and compliant, to have a high need for social approval and to

perceive the environment as providing restricted or limited options. Jung does not describe a dimension congruent to this one. (Harren, 1979).

These styles are not restricted to the career-choice process. As decision-making styles they will also be found in other matters involving non-trivial choices.

McKinney and Keen (1974) sampled Harvard MBA students in an attempt to determine what styles managers bring to bear in decision-making tasks. Their model is based "on the dual premise that consistent modes of thought develop through training and experience and that these modes can be classified along two dimensions, information gathering and information evaluation." Information gathering is the stage in which stimuli associated with the decision-making task are perceived and organized. Information evaluation refers to the manner in which the stimuli gathered are processed in light of the decision-making task. Each of these two dimensions are orthogonal in nature, and the polar extremes are defined by the following four decision-making styles:

Information Gathering

Perceptive individuals bring to bear concepts in order to filter data; they focus upon relationships between items and look for deviations from or conformities with their expectations. Their percepts act as cues for both gathering and cataloging the data they find. As this is a logical and cognitively based approach, it is most similar to Jung's sensing function and its dependence upon detailed information.

Information Evaluation

Systematic individuals tend to approach a problem by structuring it in terms of some method which, if followed through, leads to a likely solution. This is similar to Jung's thinking type.

Intuitive thinkers usually avoid committing themselves in this way. Their strategy is more one of solution-testing and trial-and-error. They are much more willing to jump from one method to another, to discard information, and to be sensitive to cues that they may be able to identify verbally, which relates this dimension to Jung's intuitive style and its dependence upon the unconscious.

Working in the interpersonal setting, Johnson (1978) has theorized the existence of decision-making constructs which have drawn upon Jungian theory, and which closely parallel the work of Harren and of McKinney and Keen. Johnson's model also posits a set of two orthogonal factors in the decision-making process: a data-gathering stage and an information-processing stage.

Data Gathering

Spontaneous individuals react to events in a holistic manner. They will commit themselves quickly to new ideas and personalize the commitment. They are willing to change their commitment readily. Their goal orientation is very flexible and their thought process often seem to follow a stream-of-consciousness processes which makes the spontaneous style similar to Jung's intuitive mode.

Information Processing

External analyzers need to think out loud in order to process information they have gathered. It is not just a preference to talk out loud, it is a need to hear the words as they are spoken.

Internal analyzers will process information best if left alone "to think about it." They retreat into themselves to analyze the problem, and find solitude conducive to deciding.

Each of these models makes its unique contribution to the understanding of the decision-making process, as well as reinforcing similar constructs. One sees that Harren's Rational Decision-maker is similar to Johnson's Systematic, is similar to McKinney and Keen's Systematic, all of which can be seen to flow from the Thinking Function of Jung. Similar parallels follow for the other styles as well. It is beyond the scope of this chapter to explore these commonalities, for that is an empirical and theoretical task. However, as a device through which to understand the more cognitive types of filters that we must deal with in the consulting process, we wish to explore more closely the work of Johnson and its implications for the consulting process. We have chosen to focus upon these constructs because they seem to lie in a useful middle ground between the generalities of needs states and the specifics of a singular cognitive style. Additionally, because the behaviors associated with Johnson's constructs are easily observed and classified, they seem especially applicable to the consulting situation (Coscarelli and Stonewater, 1979). In the next section we will examine each of Johnson's four decision-making styles in greater detail.

Decision-Making Styles

Spontaneous Style

There are three main characteristics of the spontaneous style:

1. **Reaction to Events.** The first characteristic is that spontaneous clients tend to react holistically to events. They react to a total experience, as opposed to breaking the experience into its component parts and reacting to each part separately. They either tend to like something or dislike it *in toto*. If asked what she thought about the instructional design process, the spontaneous client would say "great," "phenomenal," or "use-

less," rather than reacting to particular components of the process, such as objectives, task analysis, or evaluation. The spontaneous individual is likely to react to the holistic sum-of-all-the-parts rather than to individual parts of the experience. The spontaneous client can react to and analyze component-parts of an experience, but s/he is not likely to do so unless asked to. Initial reactions to an experience or idea will usually be holistic.

2. **Commitment to New Ideas.** A second characteristic of the spontaneous style is a quick psychological commitment to experiences, whether they are concrete (persons and events) or abstract (ideas and emotions). Spontaneous individuals personalize alternatives in order to evaluate them. By internally committing themselves to an alternative, they are best able to determine whether or not they like it. This internal commitment usually results in excitement about new thoughts, ideas, or people. A spontaneous person who first encounters the application of task analysis in the instructional process might get excited about this technique and feel that it is the best thing to happen to instruction. This excitement is the way spontaneous clients have of determining whether or not they like this approach to organizing instruction. However, spontaneous clients can just as quickly change their minds about the value of task analysis when presented with another new approach. The person is not "wishy-washy"; it is simply a way of determining feelings about an idea. This quick, internal commitment is a characteristic of lifestyle in general, though the spontaneous person is quite capable of being cautious about actions and commitments when s/he perceives the need to be.

3. **Goal Orientation.** A third characteristic of the spontaneous style is a flexible goal orientation. The spontaneous person will move from goal to goal, thought to thought, idea to idea, barely noticing the movement. The client experiences a thought-chaining process that, when carried to its extreme, represents a stream-of-consciousness flow of ideas. This person will often begin a conversation on one topic and end up talking about a completely different and unrelated topic in a short time. The client will generally be able to gather a great deal of information in a short period of time, but will do so in an unstructured fashion. Because of their chaining of thought processes, spontaneous clients are comfortable with sudden changes in their work and will often show a need for a high variety of tasks.

Systematic Style

There are also three main characteristics that describe a systematic style in clients:

1. **Reaction to Events.** A systematic person will have independent reactions to each of the separate aspects of an event. These individuals tend to break down an experience into its component parts and react to each component separately. The systematic client would indicate having

trouble in teaching by outlining the troublesome areas: "My lectures are good and hold the students' attention, the assignments are poorly organized and I need some help there, as well as with my test design." (The spontaneous person might say, "I need some help with my course--it's not going as well as I'd like.") Only after examining each separate aspect of the experience will the systematic person offer a summary of the experience. These individuals need detailed information about an idea before they experience it. They will likely ask the designer many questions about the design process and the tasks they will have to perform before they decide to begin a project. The need for obtaining a detailed understanding is necessary before a systematic individual is comfortable with a project.

2. **Commitment to New Ideas.** Systematic people will also be cautious in making a psychological commitment. They will evaluate each alternative and only personalize the one finally selected. They may, for example, ask detailed questions about the differences between an information-processing approach to task analysis and a hierarchical one before selecting the approach they want to use. One approach may seem reasonable or desirable to them, but they will not choose until they have weighed the evidence. Both the spontaneous and the systematic client may gather a great deal of data before acting, but spontaneous persons will commit themselves to an addition very quickly, and then gather more data to further evaluate the chosen approach. The systematic client will not make a psychological commitment until all data are gathered and analyzed. Once the systematic person has made a commitment, however, a great deal of data is required to change this commitment.

3. **Goal Orientation.** Finally, systematic people are very methodical in goal orientation. They move from thought to thought and idea to idea in a very deliberate fashion. They will be very aware of the goals they set and of movement from one goal to the other. If necessary, they can be flexible and change their plans. They will want to establish new goals for these new plans. They tend to establish long-range goals and work deliberately toward them.

Data Analysis

Once clients have gathered the information about a particular topic, they need to process that information in order to reach some judgment about its worth. Individuals often present two different styles for dealing with the gathered information: internal and external processing.

External Style

External processors are quickly identified by a preference, indeed a need, to think out loud. They are never certain how they feel about an idea or experience until they talk about it. If you ask

them to do something they have not thought about before, they are likely to say, "Let's talk about it," or, just as likely, begin a discourse on its pros and cons in order to discover how they feel. Every complex decision will require a good deal of discussion before it is resolved. The external processor needs to hear the words in order to make sense out of them. They will often think and talk simultaneously. For the external, thinking becomes clear when they think **and** talk at the same time. (Not all externals are high verbalizers--some are quiet and will talk only when something is important.) The best way to determine whether or not someone is an external processor is to listen to what they say, and not to how much they talk. Invariably, they will be thinking out loud.

Internal Style

Internal processors will want to think about things before talking about them. If you ask them a question they have not thought about before, there is liable to be a long pause before they answer, or they will request time to "think about it first." They are likely to be confused or irritated about an issue if they have to discuss it before they have thought it out privately. Internals can be high or low verbalizers--again the key is to listen to what they talk about. Internals will generally talk only about things they have already thought through.

Decision-Making Styles

To the extent that we can define decision-making as the gathering of information and its subsequent analysis, the designer can begin to identify four decision-making styles that are a function of the two types of information gathering styles interacting with the two processing styles. Data gathering and data processing are two independent processes. An individual's style of gathering information does not affect the style with which the information is analyzed, for these are independent events. Figure 21-6 will aid in visualizing this relationship.

It is critical to note that individuals, regardless of their psychological style, can adapt and use behaviors that tend to be associated with another style. For example, spontaneous individuals can adapt to the requirements of certain situations, e.g., work, by setting goals and working at them in what appears to be a systematic fashion. Internals who feel comfortable with their environment can adopt an external behavior, and think and talk simultaneously, whereas an external who is faced with a serious problem may spend hours in deep thought. In both cases, the adaptations will not bring about great clarity. Internals understand best when thinking, externals when talking.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

When we distill the previous information concerning consulting styles, stages in relationship

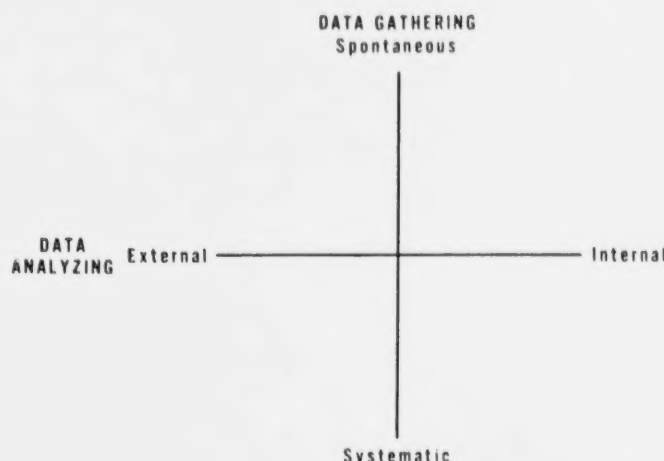


Figure 21-6. The four psychological types.

management, the Johari window, Rogers' theory of creativity, etc., some major considerations for use in instructional development consultation are apparent: Instructional development consultants must be trained to deal with the interpersonal and decision-making dimensions of people with whom they deal. To our knowledge, very little training in this area, either in graduate programs or inservice education, is occurring. As a case in point, one of the authors of this chapter found that during his graduate training, when he requested permission to do some work on the application of interpersonal communication theory to instructional development, he was met with blank stares. This is not to say that graduate training programs in instructional development are inadequate, but rather to say that they must begin to recognize the importance of the interpersonal and personality dimensions in consulting.

People like Rogers and Gibb have much to offer instructional development graduate programs in training for consultation. We would suggest that such training include skills in empathy, effective listening, paraphrasing, confrontation skills and the appropriate use of them, redirection-of-conversation skills, how to use body language, and skills in how to communicate genuinely, as well as skills at identifying decision-making styles.

Two training models—one for interpersonal skills and one for the identification of decision-making style—should be mentioned. First, Savage (1975) trained instructional development graduate students to respond more empathically to clients. He builds the rationale for training empathy skills on the basis of Rogers and Shoemaker's (1971) argument that the change agent's success lies in part with abilities to enter into empathic relationships with clients. The treatment used was Kagan's interpersonal-process by recall method (1972),

which involves three major stages. First, subjects listened to a lecture-demonstration of selected interviewing skills. These were portrayed by a client and by a consultant and were used to teach the subjects to differentiate consultant responses which are exploratory/non-exploratory, affective/cognitive, listening/non-listening, honest-labeling/distorting.

During the second phase of the treatment, subjects saw vignettes of clients and were asked to respond as a consultant to them. Both the subject and the vignettes were videotaped, so that the subject could watch the video as an aid in recalling reactions to the material. A trained recall person was used to facilitate these reactions.

In the third part of the training a client and a consultant were given an instructional development situation to role play, and were videotaped. Again, a specially trained recall person was used to help the consultant to review the videotape in order to recall feelings, emotions and reactions to the clients, and to self-evaluate responses to the client to determine whether or not they are empathic.

Savage reports that this treatment did increase the empathic understanding of the consultant for instructional development clients. Details of the research design can be found in Savage (1975).

The second training model is that of Stone water and Coscarelli. The method is used to train people to identify the various decision-making styles described in Johnson's model. First, subjects are given a questionnaire to assess their decision-making style; then they read a description of the decision-making inventory to provide them with background information. Following this, subjects form triads and are asked to identify their own style and that of the others in their group. During the triads, subjects are given the results of the

questionnaire so that they can compare their assessment of their style with that of the instrument. The triads function to help the participants become accurate at assessing others' styles because discrepancies between one's own assessment and that of another member of the triad or of the instrument must be resolved. This is usually accomplished by referring to the article describing the styles.

Subjects are then shown a videotape exemplifying each of the four styles. The videotape includes four vignettes, one for each style. The situation portrayed involves a client and a consultant discussing an instructional development problem. After the viewing and discussion of the vignettes, each person has a chance to role-play both the consultant and the client roles in an instructional development-type situation. In this exercise, the client is programmed to use a particular style, but the consultant is unaware of what style the client is using. Thus, the consultant must figure out the client's style and must begin developing ways of responding to each of the four styles.

Following these activities, the workshop moves into discussions of ways in which to respond to the various types of clients. The presenters role-play client-consultant interactions in order to demonstrate various approaches to each type of client.

Participant responses to this workshop have been positive. They easily see the usefulness of being able to identify a client's style and develop response-patterns to each type which are facilitative rather than non-facilitative. Participants usually have had experience with a whole storehouse of clients that fall into each of the four types and are eager to discuss ways of dealing with problem-clients.

SUMMARY

The difficulties with Ermalita that we mentioned in the beginning of the chapter were the impetus for an exploration of the consulting process. Lack of progress in the relationship was due in large part to the consultant's misunderstanding of her individual characteristics. From this experience we began to see that one needs to take an approach which will foster creativity as well as control decision-making styles that can be dysfunctional to the tasks at hand.

We have argued that the theoretical basis for a successful consulting relationship can be found in applying the work of Rogers and of Johnson. Rogers has laid the foundation for the development of quality relationships and we have suggested that the work of Gibb can provide practical guidance in implementing Rogers' philosophy. Further, we feel that individual differences in decision-making are an important part of any consulting relationship. We have explored the work of Jung as the theoretical basis for several descriptions of decision-making types and have focussed upon the work of Johnson as a practical and theoretically sound

approach to dealing with decision-making styles.

Finally, we have observed a need to train developers in the consulting process. Savage has adapted Kagan's IPR system to train empathy skills in graduate students, and Stonewater and Coscarelli have developed a model for training people in identifying Johnson's decision-making types. We believe that these skills are typically missing from the ID curriculum and should be an integral part of any graduate training program. We recognize that many of the skills we have discussed have been tacitly employed by many skilled designers. It has, in part, been our task to make explicit the components of the consulting process.

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